

Functional Programming with Scheme

Keep reading: Scott, Chapter 11.1-
11.3, 11.5-11.6, Scott, 3.6

Announcements

- Submitty autograder for HW4 working now
 - Your plan.rkt must
 - Conform to R5RS
 - Contain only function definitions
 - Submitty runs plt-r5rs v8.2:
 - > (load plan.rkt) -- loads your implementation
 - > (load test1.rkt) --- loads call to myinterpreter
- Exams are graded, we'll release after class
 - Original average: 72%; min: 29.5 and max: 115/115
 - I shifted curve to an average of 78%
 - Please, do write your Scheme homework :(

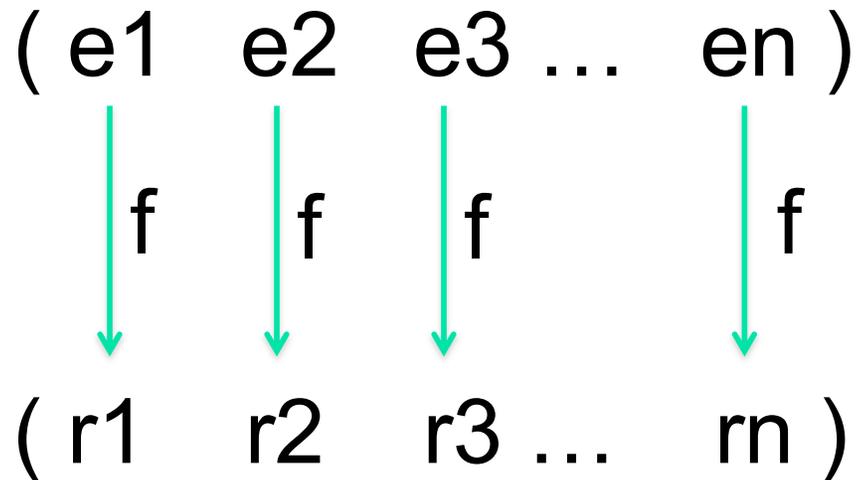
Lecture Outline

- *Scheme*
 - *Exercises with map, foldl and foldr*
 - *Tail recursion*
 - *Binding with `let`, `let*`, and `letrec`*
 - *Scoping in Scheme*
 - *Closures*

- *Scoping, revisited*

map

(map f lis)



Exercises

(foldr op lis id)

(define (rev2 lis)
 (foldr (lambda (el partial)
 (append partial (list el)))
 lis
 id))

(e₁ ...

e_{n-1} e_n) id

(e₁ ...

e_{n-1}) res₁

(... op
 (e₁) res_{n-1})

(list 'a) → (a)
(list 'a 'b 'c) → (a b c)

Write **rev2**, which reverses a list,
using a single call to **foldr**
(define (rev2 lis) (foldr ...))

res_n

Exercises

(define (len3 lis)

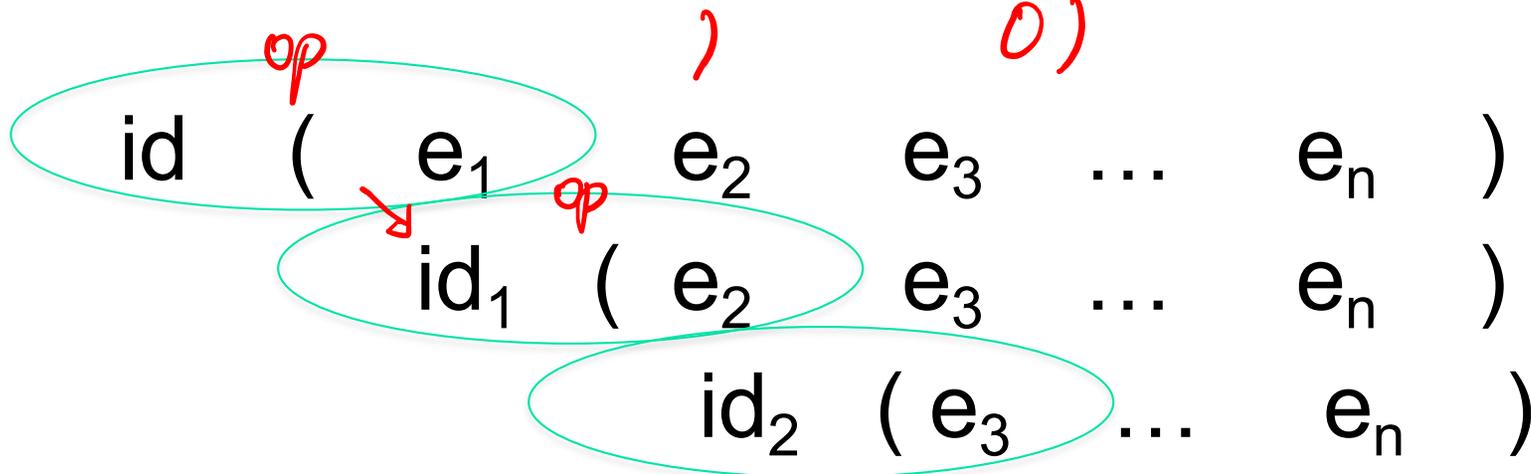
(foldl (lambda (partial el)

(+ 1 partial))

lis

0)

(foldl op lis id)



Write **len3**, which computes length of list, using a single call to **foldl**

(define (len3 lis) (foldl ...))

id_n

Exercises

(flatten3 '((1) ((2) (3))))
→ *(1 2 3)*

```
(define (foldl op lis id)
  (if (null? lis) id
      (foldl op
              (cdr lis)
              (op id (car lis)))) )
```

- Write `flatten3` using map and `foldl` or `foldr`

```
(define (flatten3 lis)
  (cond ((null? lis) lis)
        ((atom? lis) (list lis))
        (else (foldl append (map flatten3 lis) '()))))
```

Implicit deep recursion:

- Write `flatten4` this time using foldl but not map.

Reference implementation:

Explicit
deep recursion

```
(define (flatten lis)
  (cond ((null? lis) lis)
        (atom? lis) (list lis)
        (else (append (flatten (car lis))
                       (flatten (cdr lis))))))
```

```
(define (flatten4 lis)
  (cond ((null? lis) lis)
        (atom? lis) (list lis)
        (else (foldL (lambda (partial el)
                       (append partial (flatten4 el)))
                      lis
                      ())))))
```

foldr vs. foldl

```
(define (foldr op lis id)
  (if (null? lis) id
      (op (car lis) (foldr op (cdr lis) id)) ))
```

```
(define (foldl op lis id)
  (if (null? lis) id
      (foldl op (cdr lis) (op id (car lis))) ))
```

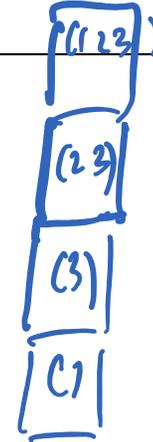
- Compare underlined portions of these two functions
 - **foldr** contains a recursive call, but it is **not** the entire return value of the function
 - **foldl**'s recursive call is the entire return value!

Tail Recursion

- A function is **tail recursive** if it either returns without a recursive call or returns the result of an immediate recursive call (an informal definition)
 - E.g., **foldl**
- Tail recursion can be implemented efficiently
 - Result accumulates in one of the arguments, and stack frame creation can be avoided

Tail Recursion: Two Definitions of Length

```
(define (len lis)
  (if (null? lis) 0
      (+ 1 (len (cdr lis)))))
```



```
(len '(3 4 5))
```

```
(define (lenh lis total)
  (if (null? lis) total
      (lenh (cdr lis) (+ 1 total))))
(define (len lis) (lenh lis 0))
```

```
(len '(3 4 5))
```

Tail Recursion: Two Definitions of Factorial

```
(define (factorial n)
  (cond ((zero? n) 1)
        ((eq? n 1) 1)
        (else (* n (factorial (- n 1))))))
```

(n-1)!

```
(define (fact2 n acc)
  (cond ((zero? n) 1)
        ((eq? n 1) acc)
        (else (fact2 (- n 1) (* n acc)))))
```

```
(define (factorial n)
  (fact2 n 1))
```

Tail Recursion, a Bit More

■ Syntax of Core Scheme

$E \rightarrow (\text{quote } C)$	<i>// constant expression</i>
$E \rightarrow I$	<i>// identifier expression</i>
$E \rightarrow (\text{lambda } (I_1 I_2 \dots) \underline{E})$	<i>// lambda expression</i>
$E \rightarrow (\text{if } E_0 \underline{E_1} \underline{E_2})$	<i>// if expression</i>
$E \rightarrow (E_0 \underline{E} \dots)$	<i>// call expression</i>
$C \rightarrow \#t \mid \#f \mid \text{num} \mid \text{sym} \mid \dots$	

- A **tail expression** is an expression that occurs in tail context (in Core Scheme, can extend)
 - The body of a lambda expression is a tail expression
 - If $(\text{if } E_0 \underline{E_1} \underline{E_2})$ is a tail expression, then E_1 and E_2 are tail expressions

Examples

```
(define (foldl op lis id)
  (if (null? lis) id → tail expr
      (foldl op (cdr lis) (op id (car lis)))))
```

E tail expr.)

↓ tail expr

```
(define (factorial n)
  (cond ((zero? n) 1)
        ((eq? n 1) 1)
        (else (* n (factorial (- n 1))))))
```

E

Tail Recursion, a Bit More

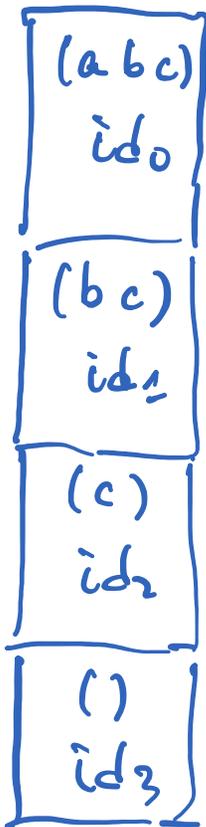
- A tail call is a tail expression that is a function call. E.g.,

```
(define (foldl op lis id)
  (if (null? lis) id
      (foldl op (cdr lis) (op id (car lis)))))
)
```

- A function is **tail recursive** if its tail calls are self-calls (still an informal definition)
- Tail calls give rise to efficient implementation of Continuation Passing Style (CPS)

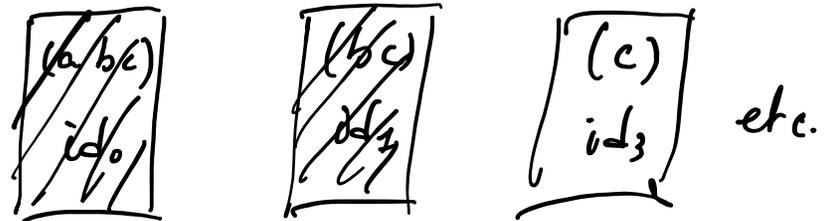
Tail Recursion, a Bit More

foldL, normal



Creates stack frames.

tail optimization



id₁ ← (op id₀ 'a)
lis ← '(b c)

Replaces frame of caller
with frame of callee.

Supports unlimited number
of active calls.

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 - *Tail recursion*
 - *Binding with let, let*, and letrec*
 - *Scoping in Scheme*
 - *Closures*

- *Scoping, revisited*

Let Expressions

let, let, letrec*

Let-expr ::= (**let** (Binding-list) S-expr1) *EBNF*

Let*-expr ::= (**let*** (Binding-list) S-expr1)

Binding-list ::= (Var S-expr) { (Var S-expr) }

- **let** and **let*** expressions define a binding between each Var and the S-expr value, which holds during execution of S-expr1
- **let** evaluates the S-exprs in Binding-list in current environment “in parallel”
- **let*** evaluates the S-exprs from left to right
- Associate values with variables for the local computation

Questions

(let ((x 2)) (* x x)) yields 4
Binding list S-expr 1

(let ((x 2)) (let ((y 1)) (+ x y))) yields ? 3
Binding list S-expr S-expr 1

(let ((x 10) (y (* 2 x))) (* x y)) yields ?
Binding list S-expr 1 ERROR

(let ((x 10)) (let ((y (* 2 x))))

(let* ((x 10) (y (* 2 x))) (* x y)) yields ?
↑

Let Expressions

Letrec-expr ::= (letrec (Binding-list) S-expr1)

Binding-list ::= (Var **S-expr**) { (Var **S-expr**) }

- **letrec** Vars are bound to fresh locations holding undefined values; **S-exprs** are evaluated in augmented environment
- **letrec** allows for definition of recursive functions

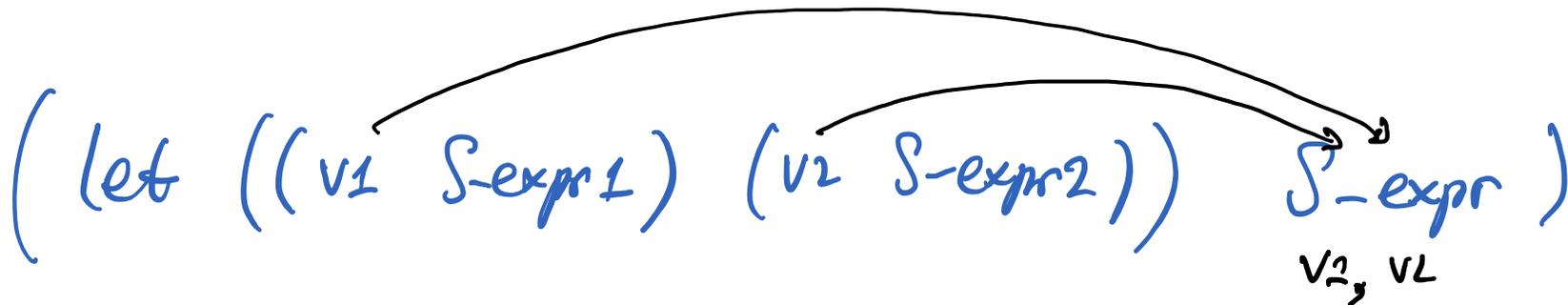
```
(let ((f (lambda (x)
  letrec      (if (null? x) 0 (+ 1 (f (cdr x)))))))
  (f '(1 2 3))) yields what?
```

```
(letrec
  ((even? (lambda (n) (if (zero? n) #t (odd? (- n 1)))))
  (odd? (lambda (n) (if (zero? n) #f (even? (- n 1)))))
  (even? 88)
```

) yields what?

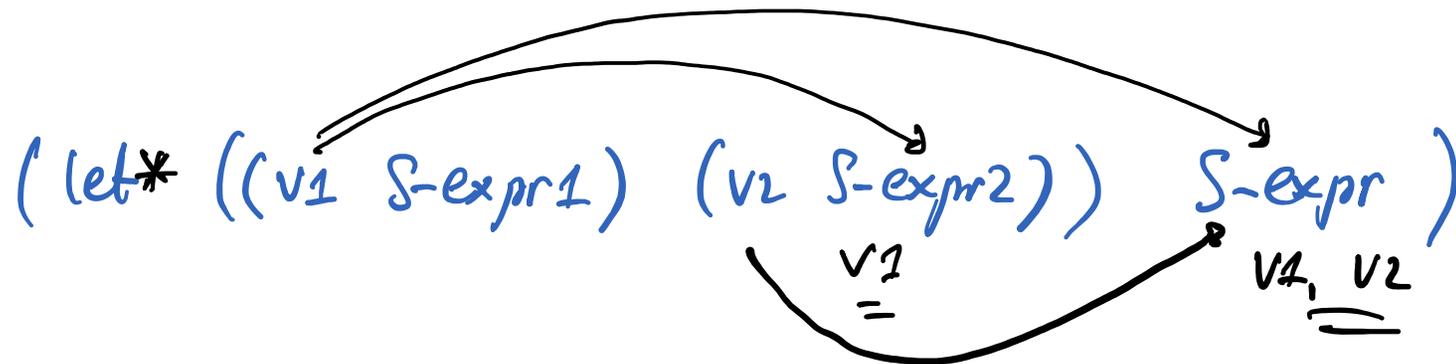
Regions (Scopes) in Scheme

- **let**, **let*** and **letrec** give rise to block structure
- They have the same syntax but define different regions (scopes)
- **let**
 - Region where binding is active: body of **let**



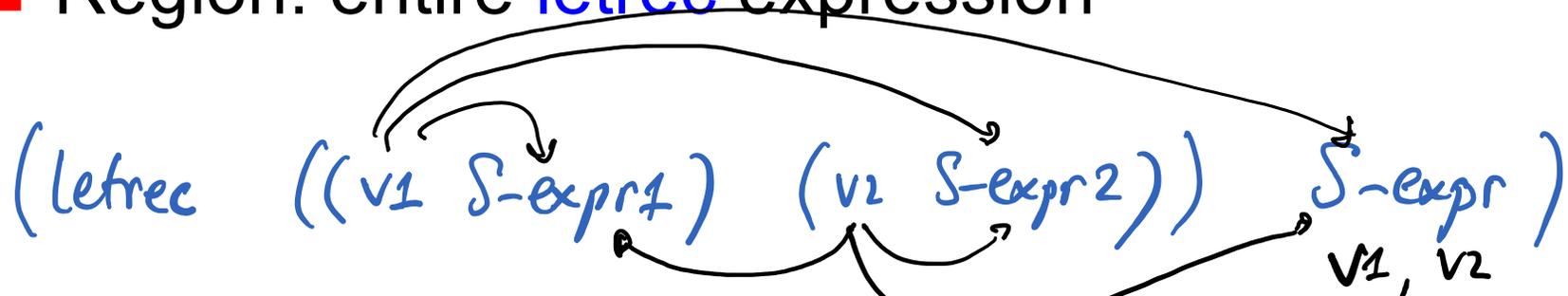
Regions (Scopes) in Scheme

- `let`, `let*` and `letrec` give rise to block structure
- They have the same syntax but define different regions (scopes)
- `let*`
 - Region: all bindings to the right plus body of `let*`.



Regions (Scopes) in Scheme

- **let**, **let*** and **letrec** give rise to block structure
- They have the same syntax but define different regions (scopes)
- **letrec**
 - Region: entire **letrec** expression



*v1 and v2 cannot be
used as values
in S-expr1, S-expr2*

Let Introduces Nested Scopes

`(let ((x 10))` *f is the plus-10 function* ; causes `x` to be bound to `10`
`(let ((f (lambda (a) (+ a x))))` ; causes `f` to be bound to
(lambda (a) (+ a x)) a lambda expression
`(let ((x 2)) (f 5)))`

Assuming Scheme uses static scoping, what would this expression yield?

$(f\ 5) \rightarrow 15$
plus-10 function

$(f\ 5) \rightarrow 7$

plus-2 in dynamic environment

Question

```
(define (f z)
  (let* ( (x 5) (f (lambda (z) (* x z))) )
    (map f z) ) )
```

times-five (arrow pointing to the inner `f`)

x → 5 (arrow pointing to the `x` in the lambda)

(f '(1 5 10)) → (5 25 50)

What does this function do?

Scoping in Scheme: Two Choices

a is a “bound” variable

x is a “free” variable;
must be found in
“outer” scope

```
(let ((x 10))
  (let ((f (lambda (a) (+ a x))))
    (let ((x 2))
      (* x (f 3) ) ) ) )
```

With static scoping it evaluates to

```
(* x ((lambda (a) (+ a x)) 3)) -->
  (* 2 ((lambda (a) (+ a 10)) 3) ) --> ? 26
  =
```

With dynamic scoping it evaluates to

```
(* x ((lambda (a) (+ a x)) 3)) -->
  (* 2 ((lambda (a) (+ a 2)) 3) ) --> ? 10
  =
```

Scheme Chose Static Scoping

```
(let ((x 10))
  (let ((f (lambda (a) (+ a x))))
    (let ((x 2))
      (* x (f 3) ) ) ) )
```

f is a **closure**:

The function value: (lambda (a) (+ a x))

The environment: { x → 10 }

Environment is in fact a static link.

Scheme chose static scoping:

(* x (lambda (a) (+ a x) 3)) -->

(* 2 ((lambda (a) (+ a 10) 3)) --> 26

Closures

- A **closure** is a function value plus the environment in which it is to be evaluated
 - Function value: e.g., $(\text{lambda } (x) (+ x \underline{y}))$
 - Environment consists of bindings for variables not local to the function so the closure can eventually be evaluated: e.g., $\{ y \rightarrow 2 \}$
- A **closure** can be used as a function
 - Applied to arguments
 - Passed as an argument
 - Returned as a value

Closures

- Normally, when **let** expression exits, its bindings disappear
- Closure bindings (i.e., bindings part of a closure) are special
 - When **let** exits, bindings become inactive, but they do not disappear
 - When closure is called, bindings become active
 - Closure bindings are “immortal”

```
(let ((x 5))  
  (let ((f (let Binding list ((x 10)) (lambda () x))))  
    (list x (f) x (f)) (5 10 5 10)  
  ))
```

→ forces evaluation of f.

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- *Scoping, revisited*

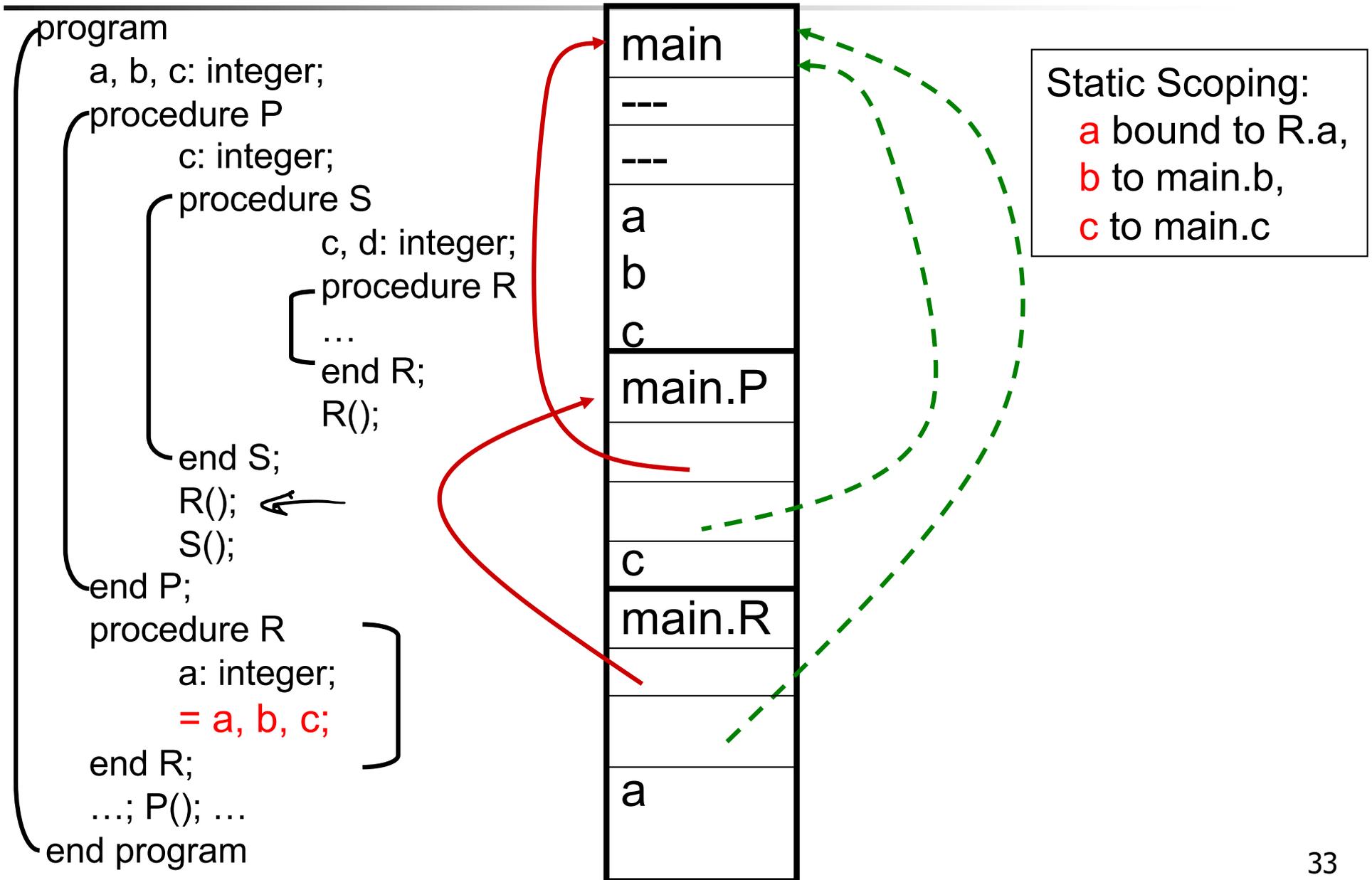
Scoping, revisited (Scott, Ch. 3.6)

- We discussed the two choices for mapping non-local variables to locations
 - Static scoping (early binding)
 - and
 - Dynamic scoping (late binding)
- Most languages choose static scoping

Scoping, revisited

- Earlier we assumed that **functions were third-class values** (i.e., functions cannot be passed as arguments or returned from other functions)
- Functions as third-class values
 - A function's static reference environment (i.e., closure bindings) is available on the stack
 - A function cannot outlive its referencing environment

Functions as Third-Class Values and Static Scoping



Scoping, revisited

- Functions as **first-class values**
 - A function value may outlive its static referencing environment
 - Therefore, we need “immortal” closure bindings
 - In languages with first-class values and static scoping, local variables must have “**unlimited extent**” (i.e., when stack frame is popped, local variables do not disappear)

Scoping, revisited

- In functional languages local variables typically have **unlimited extent**
- In imperative languages local variables typically have **limited extent** (i.e., when stack frame is popped, local variables disappear)
 - Imperative languages (Fortran, Pascal, C) disallow truly first-class function values
 - Increasingly, imperative languages introduce first-class functions, e.g., Java 8, C++11
 - Python has first-class functions

More on Dynamic Scoping

- **Shallow binding vs. deep binding**
- **Dynamic scoping with shallow binding**
 - Reference environment for function/routine is not created until the function is called
 - I.e., all non-local references are resolved using the most-recent-frame-on-stack rule
 - Shallow binding is usually the default in languages with dynamic scoping
 - All examples of dynamic scoping we saw so far used shallow binding

More on Dynamic Scoping

- **Dynamic scoping with deep binding**
 - When a function/routine is passed as an argument, the code that passes the function/routine has a particular reference environment (the current one!) in mind. It passes this reference environment along with the function value (it passes a closure)

Example

```
v : integer := 10
```

```
people : database
```

```
print_routine(p : person)
```

```
  if p.age > v
```

```
    write_person(p)
```

```
other_routine(db : database, P : procedure)
```

```
  v : integer := 5
```

```
  foreach record r in db
```

```
    P(r)
```

```
  other_routine(people, print_routine) /* call in  
main */
```

Exercise

```
(define A
  (lambda ()
    (let* ((x 2)
           (C (lambda (P) (let ((x 4)) (P))))
           (D (lambda () x))
           (B (lambda ()
                (let ((x 3)) (C D))))))
      (B))))
```

When we call `> (A)` in the interpreter, what gets printed? What would get printed if Scheme used dynamic scoping with shallow binding? Dynamic scoping and deep binding?

Evaluation Order

```
(define (square x) (* x x))
```

- Applicative-order (also referred to as **eager**) evaluation
 - Evaluates arguments before function value

```
(square (+ 3 4)) =>
```

```
(square 7) =>
```

```
(* 7 7) =>
```

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Evaluation Order

```
(define (square x) (* x x))
```

- Normal-order (also referred to as **lazy**) evaluation
 - Evaluates function value before arguments

```
(square (+ 3 4)) =>
```

```
(* (+ 3 4) (+ 3 4)) =>
```

```
(* 7 (+ 3 4)) =>
```

```
(* 7 7)
```

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- Scheme uses applicative-order evaluation

So Far

- Essential functional programming concepts
 - Reduction semantics
 - Lists and recursion
 - Higher-order functions
 - Map and fold (also known as reduce)
 - Scoping
 - Evaluation order

- Scheme

Coming Up

- Lambda calculus: theoretical foundation of functional programming
- Haskell
 - Algebraic data types and pattern matching
 - Lazy evaluation
 - Type inference
 - Monads

The End
